THE TRAINING SCHOOL BULLETIN

VOLUME 50 JANUARY, 1954 NUMBER 9

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COLORED DRAWINGS BY MENTALLY DEFECTIVE CHILDREN OF THREE ETIOLOGIC GROUPS

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In the past, Dorcus (3), Garth (5), Van Nice Gale (8) and Winch (9) have been concerned with the color preferences of normal subjects. It was not until the introduction of the House-Tree Person (H-T-P) technique by Buck (1) and the subsequent work on chromatic H-T-P's by Payne (6) that real interest was aroused in the use of color among mentally retarded individuals.

In an effort to shed more light on this subject, and particularly to find out if color usage differentiated between etiologic groups, it was decided to obtain drawings of a house and tree. It was felt that a house and tree were familiar to all members of our population, and although certain colors are conventional to both these subjects, particularly the tree, differences in use and preference of color could be observed. These observations might be quantified and also analyzed qualitatively.

Our hypotheses were: 1) that retarded children of organic etiology will use significantly fewer colors than the members of other etiologic groups mainly because of perseverative tendencies; 2) that additional reminders of the possibilities of using many colors would not alter this perseverative tendency among organics; 3) the group of familial origin will use colors most "logically" or appropriately; 4) the drawings of an "Unexplained Group"* will differ qualitatively from those of the other two groups in that they will reflect a higher degree of "personality maladjustment."

PROCEDURE

Thirty-six non-colorblind (as determined by the Ishihara test) boys between the ages of 9.1 and 17.7 years from The Training School population were used as subjects. Their IQ's ranged from 39 to 78.

The subjects were chosen after classifying them according to the system devised by Riggs and Cassel (7). Twelve subjects were placed

* Subjects whose history contra-indicate both familial and organic etiology.

in each of three etiologic groups: Organic (O), Familial (F), and cases of "Unexplained" (X) causation. The subjects were matched for C.A. and IQ. The characteristics of these three groups are summarized in Table I.

TABLE I

Chronological Ages and Intelligence Quotients of The Three Etiologic Groups

	Chronological Age		I. Q.	
Etiologic Group	Mean	S. D.	Mean	S. D.
Organic	14.0	2.55	59.5	10.90
Familials	13.9	2.31	59.1	11.50
Unexplained	14.3	2.49	59.2	12.33

Each subject was tested individually at an office desk upon which a sheet of 8½ inches by 11 inches white paper had been placed. On the desk, within easy reach, were eight colored pencils more or less equally sharpened and placed about two inches apart. From the subject's left to right the pencils were arranged in the following order: silver, yellow, green, brown, blue, red, purple and black.

Each subject was given the following instructions for the drawing of the house, which was the first task: "On this piece of paper I want you to draw me as good a house as you can. You can use as many of these colored pencils as you want to. You can draw any kind of house you like. You can erase as much as you want to. Just draw as good a house as you can." If after thirty seconds from the time the subject began to draw, he had used only one color, the examiner said: "Remember that you can use as many colors as you want." If the subject used two or more colors within the first thirty seconds, nothing was said to him. After the subject finished the house, the colors were placed back in their original position and the subject was asked to draw a tree on another piece of paper. The same instructions were used for the drawing of the tree except that the word "tree" was substituted for "house".

The data obtained included: 1) time to draw each picture, 2) which subjects neglected to use more than one color during the first thirty seconds of drawing, and 3) which subjects responded within 5 seconds to the reminder that they could use more than one color, by choosing another colored pencil. All seventy-two drawings, one house

and one tree for each of the thirty-six subjects, were scored independently by the authors in terms of the number of colors used in each production and the most frequently used (preferred) color. In addition, the authors were interested in how these three etiologic groups differed in personality aspects which are involved in the drawings of houses and trees. For this purpose a five-category personality index was devised on the basis of the type of material elicited by this task, which is presumed to be pertinent to psychological adjustment. The investigators inspected the work products of the subjects and on the basis of this inspection made a tabulation of incidence with which the following characteristics manifested themselves in the drawings: 1) poor inter-personal relations, 2) poor reality contact, 3) sexual anxiety, 4) aggressive or hostile tendencies and 5) feelings of inadequacy.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A summary of the three etiologic groups' performance in terms of time taken to draw the house and tree, and the number of colors used, is given in Table II.

TABLE II

Means and Standard Deviations of Data Supplied by Three Etiologic Groups in Drawing a House and Tree

Etiologic Group	House				Tree			
	Time (sec.)		No. of Colors		Time (sec.)		No. of Colors	
	M	S. D.	M	S. D.	M	S. D.	M	S. D.
Organics	320	247	3.6	2.9	164	96	2.4	1.4
Familial	359	156	3.4	1.7	207	85	2.8	1.3
X's	326	152	3.8	2.4	260	164	2.5	1.4

The differences between the etiologic groups in terms of the time taken to draw the house and the tree and the number of colors used in these productions, do not attain statistical significance. Although the X's used slightly more colors on the house than either of the other two groups, and the F's used slightly more on the tree than the X's or the O's, the totals (X = 76, F = 75, O = 72) do not suggest that any one group used significantly more colors than any other. Thus our first hypothesis, that the O's would use significantly fewer colors than the

etiologic groups is not supported. Further, as Table II reveals, none of the differences in production-time attains statistical significance.

Table III shows the reactions of the three etiologic groups to the basic instructions, namely, the number of subjects who "perseverated," or used only one color during the first thirty seconds after beginning to draw and the number of subjects changing colored pencils within five seconds after the additional instructions had been given. It should be noted that by "perseveration" we mean more a lack of resourcefulness

TABLE III

Reactions of the Three Etiologic Groups to the Task Instructions

	House		Tree	
Etiologic Group	No. Persev. during 1st 30″	No. Changing with add. instr.	No. Persev. during 1st 30″	No. Changing with add. instr.
Organics	12	7	6	2
Familials	8	1	6	0
X's	10	2	5	1
	$X^2 = 8.0$	$X^2 = 6.2$	$X^2 = .26$	$X^2 = 2.7$
	$P < .02$	$P < .05$	$P = < .90$	$P = < .30$

to begin a new task, a lack of spontaniety or a tendency to be conventional, rather than a compulsive action.

It is of interest to note that there was no correlation between the time taken and the number of colors used to draw the house and the tree. Failure to attain significant differences between the groups on the measures discussed above may in part be attributed to their unreliability. This is supported by the fact that the correlations between measures (time and number of colors used) made on the house production and those made on the tree production were found to be in the low twenties.

An inspection of Table III is needed in order to discuss our second hypothesis that an additional reminder would not alter the perseveration of the O's. In the drawing of the house *all* of the O's perseverated for at least thirty seconds after beginning to draw, while eight behaved this way among the F's and ten among the X's. An analysis of the data shows that the chi squares attain statistical significance at the .02 level. Furthermore, when the subjects were told after thirty seconds that they might use as many colors as they wanted to, a very interesting

phenomenon seemed to occur. Seven out of twelve O's changed colors within five seconds *immediately after* the instruction was given while only one out of eight F's behaved similarly and two out of ten X's. This was a significant difference at the 5% level of confidence. It is not certain just why the O's behave in this fashion but we feel that it might be a result of their feelings of inadequacy in their own performance (typical of organic pathology) which makes them suggestible to further stimulations as if they were trying to mold their performance into what they think is expected of them. For the drawing of the tree, which was the second task, there were no significant differences in the groups either in perseverative tendencies or in change of color after the additional instruction had been given. We feel that the O's did not behave here as they had previously because they had *learned* in their drawing of the house that their behavior was acceptable, at least in that it was neither condemned nor was there a further change in instruction. These results, especially in the drawing of the house, suggest that our second hypothesis is not verified since additional instructions did tend to alter the perseverative tendencies of the O's. This also suggests that had no additional instructions been given after thirty seconds, the O's may well have continued to perseverate and our first hypothesis would have been verified.

Relationships between measured intelligence (IQ) with time scores and number of colors used were characteristically low and non-significant. They range in value from a — .18 to + .23. There was, however, a slight tendency for "low graders" to use more colors in their productions and for "high graders" to use less colors.

Our third hypothesis that the F's will use colors most "logically" and most appropriately was difficult to test quantitatively. The way in which we attempted to evaluate logical use of color was by surveying the tree drawings. Since trees are conventionally green and brown, we considered the drawings which were all green, all brown, or a combination of both as "logical." Although green or brown may have been the preferred color in some of the drawings, if the drawings were "contaminated" by an additional inappropriate color usage it was not considered "logical." If green or brown was the preferred color and additional color usage was black shading or red cherries, it was considered "logical." Using these criteria it was found that the number of

"logical" trees was seven for the O's and also for F's and six for the X's. No significant differences in logical color usage, at least for trees, is apparent.

It was somewhat more difficult to objectify logical color employment in the drawing of the house, since houses are not conventionally of any particular color. We considered as "logical" house drawings all those which used only one color and those which employed only one color plus additional, appropriate and uniform color for trim (shutters, steps, etc.). On the basis of these criteria, "logical" houses were produced by five O's, three F's and six X's. Our hypothesis that F's would use color most logically in their house and tree drawings is not verified; in fact, they used color less "logically" than either of the other two groups.

From the point of view of conventionality, i. e., in tree drawings, brown or green was the preferred color regardless of additional, appropriate or inappropriate color usage, the X's were the most deviant. The O's are the most conventional of the three groups in their use of green or brown as the most preferred color on the tree; this seems to be consistent with our previous observation regarding their wish to behave in a "conventional" way, i. e., by following the instructions.

Our last hypothesis that the "Unexplained Group's" drawings will differ qualitatively from those of the other two groups in that they will reflect a significantly higher degree of "personality maladjustment" is not supported by the data. The X's, however, seem to manifest more aggression in their productions; this chi square is significant between the .10 and .20 probability levels. A chi square of 3.97, significant between the .05 and .02 probability levels, indicates that the F's seem to have the highest degree of sexual anxiety.

On the basis of which etiologic group had the largest number of total checks under the five categories in the personality index, no one group appears to be any more maladjusted than any other, which is contrary to our supposition that X's drawings would be called more maladjusted.

England (4) stated that his retarded group was prone to add other items to an already drawn scene. A similar tendency, that of adding sun, flowers, steps, grass or some unusual detail to the house and tree drawings, was found most frequently in the F group, next with the X's,

and least with the O's. This tendency of the O's to neglect details is in agreement, to some extent, with Buck's (2) contention that "the more advanced the organicity the more likely the drawings are to exhibit a poverty of detailing." Although our sample was exceedingly small, there seemed to be no less poverty of detail in the drawings of the imbecile O's than in those of the borderline O's.

Buck also felt that, as far as color was concerned, the O's will use it chaotically and fail to conform to either convention or reality. We did not find a significantly higher absence of reality contact with the O's but there were some specific instances of extremely chaotic color usage. The differences were not great enough, however, to differentiate etiologic groups. Again, had our sample been larger, we might have found more marked differences.

SUMMARY

An experiment was designed to investigate the use of color by retarded children, and to find out if color usage differentiated between etiologic groups. Thirty-six males between the ages of 9.1 and 17.7 years and IQ's ranging from 39 to 78 were divided into three equal groups of children whose etiology was organic (O) familial (F) or unexplained (X), and were instructed to draw a house and a tree with eight different colored pencils. If during the first thirty seconds of drawing they used only one color, a further instruction was given to remind them that they could use as many colors as they wished. Our hypotheses were that the O's would use fewer colors than the others because of perseverative tendencies, that additional reminders would not alter perseveration among the O's, that F's would use color more logically and that X's would show the greatest degree of maladjustment. The results show that differences between etiologic groups in terms of the time taken to draw and the number of colors used are insignificant, that O's perseverated significantly more than the other groups during the first thirty seconds (100%), that O's changed colors within five seconds immediately after the reminder instruction had been given in the drawing of the house only and the other groups did not do so significantly. Relations between IQ and time scores and number of colors used were low and non-significant. No group used color more or less logically than any other group and the X's did not reflect a higher degree of personality maladjustment, but the F group showed a significant degree of sexual anxiety.

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CURRENT PUBLICATION LIST

Recent contributions of articles to journals, magazines, and other publications from members of the staff of The Training School include:

SCHLANGER, Bernard B.—"Speech Examination of a Group of Institutionalized Mentally Handicapped Children." *The Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, Vol. 18, No. 4, Pages 339-349. December, 1953.

SATTER, George A. and FREDERIKSEN, Norman—"The Construction and Validation of an Arithmetrical Computation Test." *Education and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 13, Pages 209-227, 1953. (Dr. Satter is the member of The Training School staff).

DELP, Harold A.—"What About Your Retarded Pupils?" Accepted for publication in the March, 1954 issue of *The Grade Teacher* magazine.

These Are OUR Children

J. M. MacDONALD

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Reprint of Article Released December 6, 1953
by North American Newspaper Alliance, Inc.

Mental handicap, which affects an estimated 15,000,000 persons in the United States, is ranked by many educators and government officials as the nation's No. 1 social problem. It strikes in every state, every community, without regard to family background or economic status.

Each year state and city governments must weigh the tremendous cost of institutional care, of opportunity schools and special education classes. Uncounted other citizens, not depending on public funds, support their children in private institutions, training schools, or nursing homes.

Two major questions are facing community groups, school officials, and legislators across the nation today: Does every child have a right to education within the limits of his ability? Do mentally handicapped persons have a right to share in employment so far as they are able?

Answers are being found to these questions. There is a growing awareness that mentally retarded children and adults are human beings, not merely lists of so-called "Morons", "Imbeciles", and "Idiots". It has been found that many of them can work and earn, that their lives can be happy and useful.

The U. S. Office of Education, in a detailed report on its vocational rehabilitation program from 1945 to 1951, found that thousands of mentally handicapped persons are being gainfully employed. The five-year report shows they had worked in 69 different kinds of jobs and that their annual earnings were 26 times greater than before.

Industrial leaders were quick to appreciate production records made by these workers during World War II in routine, semi-skilled jobs. Today, sheltered workshops, industrial colonies, and supervised community projects for these workers are found in more and more of our towns and cities.

Of all persons affected by mental handicap, only 10 per cent are in any kind of school or institution. Of the other 90 per cent, the majority are beyond school age and are staying "at home". Are their cases hopeless? Will they always be a burden to families and communities?

Dr. Walter Jacob, Director of The Training School at Vineland, N. J., which has pioneered in research in this field since 1888, says: "Recent demonstrations of teamwork among parents, teachers, physicians, psychologists, training supervisors and others who touch the daily lives of retarded persons have shown amazing results. Many handicaps have been minimized and new avenues for individual achievement and approval have been opened".

The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Washington, D. C., in its publications, stresses the need for more effective teamwork in state employment services, welfare departments, trade unions, and all community agencies which deal with physically and mentally handicapped persons.

Extensive investigations into the cases, prevention, and treatment of mental handicap are moving forward at Vineland and elsewhere. Results are encouraging. New knowledge is dispelling the shadows of the past when families were ashamed of these children. Since it has been shown that the majority of them are born to normal or superior parents, the stigma of handicap has been removed and treatment is now approached more realistically. Just as the fabled slow tortoise made a creditable showing against the hare, it is increasingly apparent that these "slow" children can achieve many things. Through better understanding and love, they can reach higher goals than ever before.

SPEAKERS' SCHEDULE

Members of the Speakers' Bureau of The Training School filled several engagements during January, including talks in Jersey City, Newark, Vineland, Franklinville, Woodstown, and Doylestown. Other engagements within the next two months have been scheduled with clubs in Haddon Heights, Delanco, Ocean City, Washington, Bridgeton, Glassboro, and others.

In Memoriam

ELIZABETH S. KITE

Elizabeth S. Kite, author, historian, and former research assistant at The Training School, died January 6 in Wilmington, Delaware. She was 89.

Widely known for her research work in connection with "The Kallikak Family" study, Miss Kite had many friends at The Training School and in the Vineland area. She first came to Vineland in 1912 serving until 1918 and returning again for a year in 1927. She had studied in Europe and spoke and read French fluently, which proved invaluable in her later research contributions to the field of mental deficiency.

When "The Kallikak Family" was published in 1912 by Dr. Henry H. Goddard, first research director at The Training School, he inscribed copies to Miss Kite which read: "To Elizabeth S. Kite—without whose indefatigable labor the material in this book would never have been brought to light; and without whose skill and excellent judgment would not have been worth publishing, even when collected. (signed) Dr. H. H. Goddard." A volume, so inscribed, is still on file in the library at The Training School.

Miss Kite translated the 336-page Binet-Simon "Development of Intelligence in Children," published by The Training School in 1916. She also did the translation work on "The Intelligence of the Feeble Minded" also written by Alfred Binet and T. H. Simon. These translations led to the standardization of the Binet-Simon intelligence tests at The Training School and their later wide use throughout America.

After leaving The Training School, Miss Kite spent many years in writing historical documents and books for the Institut Francais de

Washington of which she was a trustee, relating to historical relationships between France and America.

She was archivist of the American Catholic Historical Society of Philadelphia. She was recipient of a Literature Doctorate from Villanova University in 1933—the first lay-woman to receive this honor. In addition, she also received the Chevalier de la Legion d' Honneur in the same year from the French government.

Burial services were held privately in Philadelphia on January 9. Surviving Miss Kite are her nephew, St. Alban Kite, 1101 Lawrence Road, Trenton, and a niece, Mother Mary Barbara of the Holy Child Order, Sharon Hill, Pa.

BOOK REVIEW

DOLL, EDGAR A., THE MEASUREMENT
OF SOCIAL COMPETENCE:
A Manual for the
VINELAND SOCIAL MATURITY SCALE
Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau. Pp. xviii—664. 1953.

Since its first appearance in 1935, the Vineland Social Maturity Scale has been widely used. But the research from which it was developed began as early as 1925 in the Vineland laboratory's concern with the measurement of social adjustment and self-help among children in institutions and in occupational classrooms.

This book analyzes responses to the items of which the Scale is composed by age, sex, intelligence and socio-economic status and describes the criteria by means of which the items were selected. It presents the theory on which the Scale was constructed and the details of standardization. Figures show the age progression for each item for males and females and for normal and feebleminded subjects. Statistical data for each item and for the Scale as a whole are given in detail. Included also is a review of the many studies of the Scale reported in the literature and a discussion of its practical use as illustrated in concrete cases.

Most of the questions that a professional worker might ask are answered at some point in the book. Not only are results within normal populations and for various sampling variables presented, but also the relations to development, education, dependency and adoption, delinquency and senescence, and to various types of handicap and mental disturbance. Some consideration is given to the use of the Scale in analyzing biographical and literary data.

The underlying theory is that as an individual grows, he acquires competence with things and with persons in an order that is reasonably consistent from one person to another. By measuring these competences and comparing the results with normative data, the level of maturity attained by any person can be determined. Developmental tasks may originate either in the internal makeup of the individual or in external

social demands. Because the normal child's capacity to solve problems increases as he grows older, his progression can be measured by intelligence tests. But for one reason and another, the progress of the handicapped child, the institutionalized child, the child with behavior difficulties, is complicated. He may grow up in an environment in which normal responsibilities do not come upon him. He may be overprotected, may not be permitted or encouraged to practice some skills, may find his handicap insurmountable because of the attitudes of himself and those about him. The normal child readily acquires competences through the pressures of the home, the school and his associates.

Need, then, arises for a method of estimating how far a particular child has moved toward maturity in order to determine how much responsibility he can be given, how he should be educated, how much he can help himself. For example, some blind and some crippled children are never encouraged to dress themselves because of oversolicitous or indulgent parents, whereas normal children are forced into competence by informal and formal pressures from parents and other children. At a given age—say eight years—we can almost be sure that a normal child will dress himself, whereas for a handicapped child, without knowing his background, we cannot say.

Doll and his associates have standardized a series of questions about the manner in which a child carries out various everyday responsibilities and activities that can be asked parents and guardians. These questions have been put into an age scale, following the pattern of the original Binet-Simon. A few items illustrate the principle:

Age 1 to 2 years, item 28, "Eats with spoon".
Age 4 to 8 years, item 52, "Washes face unassisted".
Age 7 to 8 years, item 70, "Combs or brushes his hair".
Age 10 to 11 years, item 79, "Makes telephone calls".
Age 15 to 18 years, item 93, "Goes out unsupervised in daytime".
Age 18 to 20 years, item 101, "Assumes personal responsibility".
Age 25+ year level, item 111, "Supervises occupational pursuits".

Even the most superficial examination of these items reveals an altitude phenomenon related to age. Note also that in the past there have been many definitions of development or mental level in terms of such competences. We do not, for instance, expect the two year old to do routine household tasks, whereas we expect a nine year old to do them.

It is to be expected, and is actually so, that the scores on such a scale will be substantially correlated with a measure of general intelligence. Its applicability to normal children is limited because: (1) for predictive purposes an intelligence test scale is better, and (2) the many items which concern everyday adjustment can ordinarily be taken for granted on the basis of chronological age alone.

But it does not follow that for special groups of children exposed to very different social pressures that the same relations will hold. While there is still some positive relation to intelligence, enough independent variation is present to justify a separate scale. In particular, this Scale can add greatly to the assessment of children who deviate downward or away from the normal developmental course.

Even with all the refinements of scaling and standardization that modern knowledge of methods and statistical procedures give, such an instrument cannot be expected to give as precise measurement as is available with many other instruments in the psychologist's repertoire. But it does give a broad look at the developmental process in terms of a series of standardized life situations. It is a measure of achievement rather than of potentiality. While, because of its positive correlation with intelligence, it may offer some possibilities for predicting outcome, measures of intelligence are generally better for prediction. A professional examiner is aware of these limitations.

Nevertheless both the individual items and the Scale, as a whole, give a comprehensive view of the developmental process and a generalized picture of what ordinary individuals at successive ages can do that is not available in many more restricted studies.

One problem of definition is involved. In recent years the term "social" has acquired such a variety of meanings that the title "social competence" may be confusing. Broadly speaking, everything a human does has social implications. Some limit "social" to reactions to other persons, to sensitivity to group situations, or to the capacity of the person to deal with other people. But this Scale is only incidentally concerned with this area. Actually, it deals with the skill of the growing person in meeting a wide variety of situations involving objects and materials, as well as reactions to other persons. It is more concerned with what the person can do than it is with his perception of and facility in social relations. In a sense, then, the Scale measures limited aspects

of social competence or maturity. On most of the items, the socially-minded adult who spent his life in working with and for others, would make no better score than a person whose interests were highly personal, egotistic or narrowly-centered in objects.

On the technical side, the work with the Scale seems to have been as well done as the types of questions and the activities covered by the questions warrant. The author is well aware of the limitations imposed by questions asked of parents and guardians as compared with direct observation or test. Nevertheless, there emerges a picture of the individual's relation to his environment which is far superior to what would result from casual and unstandardized questions.

Professional workers and clinicians who have used the Scale and college and university instructors who present it to their classes will welcome the full analysis, exposition and critique of an instrument that has been available and used for almost twenty years.

JOHN E. ANDERSON, Ph. D.
Director, Institute of Child Welfare
University of Minnesota

SAVOY-PLAZA DINNER

Initial announcements of the third annual dinner-dance of Parents, Inc., of The Training School at Vineland have been received by staff members and friends of the school in this area. The dinner will be held Saturday evening, May 1st, at the Savoy-Plaza Hotel in New York. John B. Howey of South Orange, N. J., is dinner chairman this year.

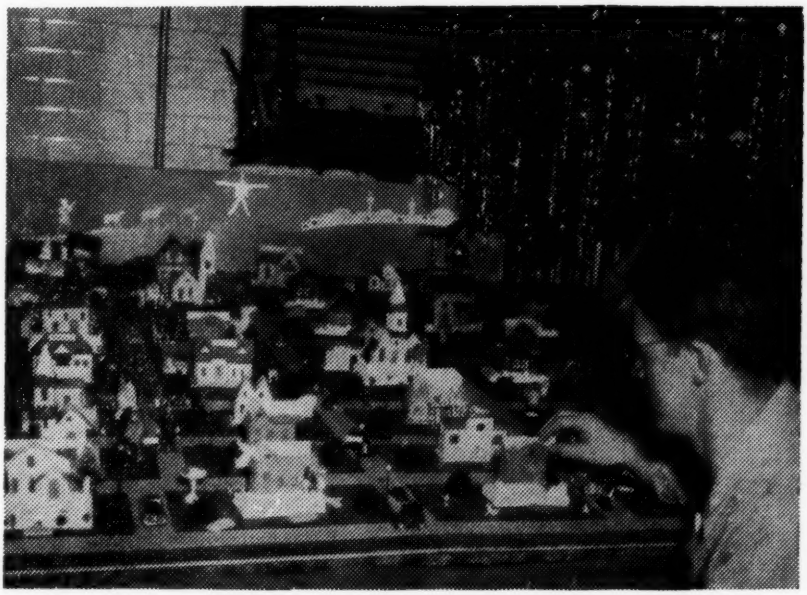
Many ways to earn tickets to the $50-a-plate affair are listed in Mr. Howey's letter, including sale of advertising in the program booklet which this year is titled "The Parents Story Book".

The banquet suite at the Savoy-Plaza has already been engaged, providing separate large rooms for the reception and ensuing dinner-dance. The goal for this year's benefit has been set at $20,000 and "all funds will be used either directly for the children at The Training School or for research".

Richard E. Thomson of Newark is president of the parents' group. He served as dinner chairman for the first two similar events in 1952 and 1953.

CHRISTMAS ENTERTAINMENT GIVEN BY TRAINING SCHOOL CHILDREN

More than 100 children of The Training School took part in an entertainment entitled "Why is Christmas?—Gramps and Granny Find The Answer in Many Lands", which was given at Garrison Hall on December 21st and 22nd.



A lighted village under the tree at Stokes Cottage was one of the many beautiful displays at Christmas time 1953.

The play consisted of a series of skits portraying the observance of Christmas in Sweden, Germany, Holland, Mexico, Yugoslavia and the United States. The children re-enacted some of the customs of these countries and sang the carols appropriate in each case. Pantomine with a reader was used in this entertainment and also some playlets. The junior boys chorus and a mixed chorus participated. Intermission

numbers included several selections by kindergarten groups and carols by a brass sextette. The entertainment was concluded with a skit on "Santa's Workshop" and a religious tableau.

Dr. Harold A. Delp, coordinator of educational activities, was in charge of the program. He was ably assisted by Miss Margaret Dorasavage and Miss Mary Louise Stevens, both of whom had the major duty of writing and production. All of the teachers assisted with costumes, music, and other details in presenting the play.

The entertainment was received enthusiastically by audiences on both nights consisting of various groups from cottages, Training School personnel, relatives of the children, and also many friends of the school from Vineland and from out of town.

MUSICAL PROGRAM

Presenting two hour-long concerts for the children of The Training School, the Dinshah Saxophone Quartet of Malaga, were well received at the programs held in the afternoon and evening of January 6 in Garrison Hall.

The quartet is composed of four Dinshah brothers, Darius, Hom, Noshervan, and Jal. Another brother, Roshan, served as pianist and master of ceremonies. Jal Dinshah is a regular employee of The Training School.

The two programs were presented under the sponsorship of the Education Department of the school. Dr. Harold A. Delp, coordinator of educational activities, presided.

Opening with the Overture to Orpheus by Offenbach, the quartet presented a variety program including several novelty and dance numbers. These included "Deep Hollow", "Bear Tracks", "Whispering", "Deep Purple", "Dancing Shadows", "Indian Trail", as well as "Cavitina" and the well known "Coronation March" by Meyerbeer.

The brothers carried on a humorous patter between numbers and did considerable pantomine clowning for the amusement of the youngsters. The program concluded with the stirring "Light Cavalry Overture" by Von Suppe.